HISTORY
SOCIAL SCIENCE
FRAMEWORK

FOR CALIFORNIA PUBLIC SCHOOLS
Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve

CHAPTER 20

Access and Equity

The disciplines of history–social science provide children with knowledge of the nation's past, develop proficient readers and writers, and prepare citizens able to both understand an increasingly complex society and participate fully in a democratic system. The ultimate goal of history–social science programs in California is to ensure access to high-quality curriculum and instruction for all students in order to meet or exceed the state's *History–Social Science Content Standards for California Public Schools* (History–Social Science Content Standards), *California Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts and Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects* (CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy); and *California English Language Development Standards* (CA ELD Standards).

All California students deserve a world-class twenty-first-century education, one that allows them to achieve their highest potential. In order to accomplish this goal, it is important to acknowledge that inequities exist in current educational systems. Analyses of data have revealed persistent academic achievement gaps for students of color, students with disabilities, and students living in poverty. Current evidence also indicates that some groups of students experience unsafe conditions and rejection in schools because of their cultural, ethnic, and linguistic background; disability; sexual orientation; socioeconomic status; or other factors.

California's students demonstrate a wide variety of skills, abilities, and interests as well as varying proficiency in English and other languages. They come from diverse cultural, linguistic, ethnic, and

religious backgrounds; have different experiences; and live in different familial and socioeconomic circumstances. The greater the variation of the student population, the richer the learning experiences for all and the more assets upon which teachers may draw. At the same time, however, the teacher's role in providing high-quality instruction that is sensitive to individual needs becomes more complex. In such complex settings, the notion of *shared responsibility* is particularly crucial.

The history–social science standards and this framework call for teachers to provide **all** students with a balanced curriculum that includes history–social science. Responding to this call requires that educators share the responsibility of ensuring equity for several populations of learners who are particularly vulnerable to academic inequities in history–social science disciplines. Those populations of learners are discussed in this chapter.

More than 60 languages other than English are spoken by California's students, and the result is a rich tapestry of cultural, ethnic, and religious heritages and a range of skills and physical abilities. Teachers face students whose lives and learning are greatly affected by the circumstances in which they live. It is beyond the scope of this framework to discuss all aspects of California's diverse student population. Highlighted are some groups of students for whom it is especially important to acknowledge and value the resources they bring to school. Those groups are also addressed to recognize the need for schools to make necessary shifts to ensure student achievement by providing educational access and equity for all students. Though presented separately, *those populations are not mutually exclusive;* some students are members of multiple groups. Furthermore, although teachers become culturally competent about their students' backgrounds, *each student population is a heterogeneous group.* Therefore, teachers should know their students as *individuals.*

Culturally Responsive Teaching

The disciplines of history and the related social sciences provide unique opportunities to integrate culturally and linguistically responsive teaching into classroom instruction in order to deepen content understanding, develop literacy, and promote engagement. Students may possess multiple cultural identities based upon their gender, sexual orientation, class, race, ethnicity, religion, and disabilities (Ignatjeva and Iliško 2008). Culturally competent teachers respect differences, are

aware of their own cultural identity and unconscious biases, and adapt their instruction accordingly.

To ensure that all students thrive in history–social science classrooms, teachers should adopt an *additive* stance toward the culture and language of their students by following four principles:

Exude a positive disposition. Teachers should develop an awareness of and positive disposition toward their students' cultural and linguistic heritage, their communication styles, and of their students' dialects of English. Teachers should also promote positive dispositions toward diversity among all students (LeMoine 1999; McIntyre and Turner 2013; Moll et al. 1992).

Recognize cultural and experiential backgrounds: Teachers should learn about their students' lives and make connections between students' experiences, backgrounds, and interests and the content learning in school. Teachers can fill gaps found in the curriculum by adding relevant examples of diversity beyond those in the standards. For example, they add culturally or ethnically diverse examples of individual or group achievements, contributions, primary-source documents (perspectives), images, art, literature, songs, textbooks, supplementary materials, and even posters and bulletin boards that may not already be present in their classrooms. It is important for students to see examples of members from their own gender and sexual orientation, as well as cultural, ethnic, and even linguistic backgrounds in the classroom materials that are used regularly.

Address language status. Teachers should take the stance that multi-lingualism and dialect variation are natural. In addition, teachers should make transparent for their students, in developmentally appropriate ways, that while standard English is the type of English privileged in school and in the workforce, bilingualism and *bidialecticism* (or proficiency in multiple dialects of English) are highly valued assets (Harris-Wright 1999).

Support the development of academic English. Teachers should focus instruction on intellectually rich and engaging tasks that allow students to use academic English in meaningful and authentic ways. To make meaning in history–social science, teachers should also make transparent to students how academic English works. This effort includes helping students to develop

register awareness so that they understand how and when to use different types of English to meet the language expectations of history–social science (Schleppegrell 2004).

English Learners

Students come to California schools from all over the world, speak a variety of primary languages, and bring a range of background experiences with formal and informal schooling. Many English learners (ELs) were born in California and have experienced instruction in English only in the U.S. Some ELs who enter the U.S. in late elementary through high school have strong academic backgrounds, are on par with their native-English-speaking peers in terms of content knowledge, and may have studied English in their home countries before emigrating. However, other ELs have had disrupted educational experiences due to a variety of reasons, including war, persistent violence, or famine in their home countries or because severe poverty, cultural norms, or political factors prevented them from attending school.

English learners are defined by the California Department of Education (CDE) as those students for whom there is a report of a primary language other than English on the state-approved Home Language Survey (CDE Language Census R30-LC) **and** who, on the basis of the state approved oral language (grades kindergarten through grade twelve) assessment procedures and literacy (grades three through twelve only), have been determined to lack the clearly defined English language skills of listening/comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing necessary to succeed in the school's regular instructional programs.

Regardless of the background experiences of individual ELs, each California school and school district is responsible for ensuring that all ELs have full access to a rich and comprehensive history–social science curriculum via appropriately designed instruction and that each EL student makes steady (and, if necessary, accelerated) progress in their English language development related to history–social science.

English learners come to school with a range of cultural and linguistic backgrounds, experiences with formal schooling, proficiency with native language and English literacy, migrant statuses, and socioeconomic statuses, as well as interactions in the home, school, and community. Educators need to be informed of those factors in order to support ELs in achieving school success. History–social science teachers may accomplish this goal through the implementation of the CA ELD

Standards in tandem with the history–social science and other content standards. Regardless of their individual backgrounds and levels of English language proficiency, ELs at all levels of proficiency are able to engage in intellectually challenging and content-rich activities, with appropriate support from teachers that addresses their language and academic learning needs. Figure 20.1 shows language skills of the CA ELD Standards that may be practiced in history–social science classrooms.

FIGURE 20.1. Structure of the CA ELD Standards

Section 1: Goal, Critical Principles, and Overview
Goal: This articulates the vision California has for all English learners.
Critical Principles for Developing Language and Cognition in Academic Contexts: This emphasizes the three general areas teachers need to focus on when planning instruction for ELs and observing their progress. These areas are elaborated upon, by English language proficiency level, in Section 2.
Part I: Interacting in Meaningful Ways Part II: Learning About How English Works Part III: Using Foundational Literacy Skills

Section 2: Elaboration on Critical Principles for Developing Language and Cognition in Academic Contexts		
Part I: Interacting in Meaningful Ways		
Communicative Mode	Critical Principles Addressed (by English language proficiency level)	Standard Number
Collaborative	■ Exchanging information/ideas ■ Interacting via written English ■ Supporting opinions and persuading others ■ Adapting language choices	1–4
Interpretive	■ Listening actively ■ Reading/viewing closely ■ Evaluating language choices ■ Analyzing language choices	5–8

Figure 20.1. *(continued)*

Productive	■ Presenting ■ Writing ■ Justifying/arguing ■ Selecting language resources	9–12
Part II: Learning About How English Works		
Language Process	Critical Principles Addressed (by English language proficiency level)	Standard Number
Structuring Cohesive Texts	■ Understanding text structure ■ Understanding cohesion	1–2
Expanding and Enriching Ideas	■ Using verbs and verb phrases ■ Using nouns and noun phrases ■ Modifying to add details	3–5
Connecting and Condensing Ideas	■ Connecting ideas ■ Condensing ideas ■ Connecting content to current events or students' lives	6–7
Part III: Using Foundational Literacy Skills		
This part contains no standards but signals teachers that ELs at all grade levels require particular instructional considerations for learning foundational literacy skills in English.		

Source: English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework for California Public Schools (ELA/ELD Framework), p. 40.

Although learning an additional language is multilayered and complex, depends on many variables, and does not necessarily proceed in a linear fashion, there are some general stages of ELD. California refers to these stages as *Emerging, Expanding,* and *Bridging.* The grade-level CA ELD Standards provide guidance on determining the needs of ELs at the three stages by grade level (or grade span in the case of grades nine through ten and eleven through twelve). Figure 20.2 summarizes the general progression of ELD as conceptualized in the CA ELD Standards. (The CA ELD Standards proficiency level descriptors and grade-level standards provide more detailed information on these stages.)

FIGURE 20.2. General Progression of the Stages of ELD

		ELD Continuum		
Native Language	Emerging	Expanding	Bridging	Lifelong Language Learners
ELs come to school with a wide range of knowledge and competencies in their primary language, which they draw upon to develop English.	ELs at this level typically progress very quickly, learning to use English for immediate needs as well as beginning to understand and use academic vocabulary and other features of academic language.	ELs at this level increase their English knowledge, skills, and abilities in more contexts. They learn to apply a greater variety of academic vocabulary, grammatical structures, and discourse practices in more sophisticated ways, appropriate to their age and grade level.	ELs at this level continue to learn and apply a range of advanced English language knowledge, skills, and abilities in a wide variety of contexts, including comprehension and production of highly complex texts. The "bridge" alluded to is the transition to full engagement in grade-level academic tasks and activities in a variety of content areas without the need for specialized instruction.	Students who have reached full proficiency in the English language, as determined by state and/or local criteria, continue to build increasing breadth, depth, and complexity in comprehending and communicating in English in a wide variety of contexts.

Source: CA ELD Standards.

It is important to note that an EL student at any given point along his or her trajectory of English language development may exhibit some abilities (e.g., speaking skills) at a higher proficiency level, while exhibiting other abilities (e.g., writing skills) at a lower proficiency level (Gottlieb 2006). Similarly, an EL may understand much more than she or he can say. Furthermore, an EL may successfully perform a particular skill at a lower proficiency level (e.g., reading and analyzing a science text) yet at the next higher proficiency level need review in the same reading and analysis skills when presented with a new or more complex type of text.

A Literate Discipline

Instruction in history–social science poses cognitive and content area challenges because it is a literacy-dependent discipline; its thinking is constructed in language. Students are better prepared to understand historical texts when they learn how to decipher the grammatical and methodological choices made by historians (Schleppegrell and Achugar 2003; Schleppegrell, Achugar, and Oteíza 2004). Students must receive explicit instruction on how to break text apart to gather further meaning, grapple with difficult discipline-specific vocabulary, and deal with how history is often written, reconstructed, and presented.

Teachers use Part II of the CA ELD Standards as a guide for showing ELs how different text types are organized and structured (e.g., how a story is structured or where in an argument evidence is presented) or how language is used purposefully to make meaning (e.g., how sentences are combined to show relationships between ideas). For example, a history teacher identifies a particular sentence in the textbook that is challenging for students but critical for understanding the topic. The teacher leads a discussion in which the class unpacks a dense sentence for its meaning by using more everyday language. Figure 20.3 presents an example (the main clause is in italics).

FIGURE 20.3. Sentence Unpacking

Original sentence to unpack:

"Although many countries are addressing pollution, *environmental degradation continues to create devastating human health problems each year.*"

Meanings:

- Pollution is a big problem around the world.

- People are creating pollution and ruining the environment.

- The ruined environment leads to health problems in people.

- Health problems are still happening every year.

- The health problems are really, really bad.

- A lot of countries are doing something about pollution.

- Even though the countries are doing something about pollution, there are still big problems.

What this sentence is mostly about: Environmental degradation

What it means in our own words: People are creating a lot of pollution and messing up the environment all around the world, and even though a lot of countries are trying to do things about it, a lot of people have big health problems because of it.

History–social science is particularly challenging for English learners. They must simultaneously develop fluency in a second language and also gain content and analysis skills in a complex subject area with high literacy demands. To learn English and achieve mastery of the History–Social Science Content Standards, students must participate in instructional programs that combine critical content knowledge and skill development in both English-language proficiency and the content standards and analysis skills contained in the *History–Social Science Framework.*

All students should have an opportunity to actively engage with the History–Social Science Content Standards regardless of their proficiency in the English language. Effective instructional practices foster English language development and at the same time teach history–social science content. Early instruction in English literacy and content knowledge must be incorporated into English

language development programs. Students in biliteracy programs should have a carefully designed scope and sequence that builds on skill in the primary language and ensures steady progress in both languages. In a structured English immersion program, instruction in history–social science for ELs should not be delayed until the students have mastered oral English. In fact, most studies promote instruction in the content knowledge, critical thinking and analysis skills, and the reading strategies of the disciplines despite students' low literacy or limited proficiency in the English language (Shanahan and Shanahan 2008).

Students who study and learn the content standards and analysis skills contained in the *History–Social Science Framework* will acquire academic language, defined as the language of literacy and books, tests, and formal writing. The academic language used in the history–social science curriculum for ELs is a critical element that must be specifically designed, planned, scheduled, and taught. Content-specific knowledge, whether topical (e.g., mercantilism, Reconstruction, Cold War) or disciplinary (political, social, cultural, economic), and task-specific skills, such as comparing, explaining, analyzing, and describing, are critical components of academic language that are developed in history–social science classrooms and are aligned with the Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills. To develop the content-specific knowledge and task-specific skills of academic language in the history–social science classroom, teachers may consider the following instructional strategies:

- Sentence building, including determining units of meaning, describing, and elaborating;

- Reading for meaning, such as making inferences, drawing conclusions, and asking questions;

- Categorizing relationships and hierarchy of ideas and passage organization; and synthesis through written summary or explanation (Goldsmith and Tran 2012, 2013).

Vocabulary development is central to academic language and reading and writing in history. History–social science content is laden with discipline-specific vocabulary that is extremely complex, mostly conceptual, and cannot be explained with a brief definition. Consider the following history–social science vocabulary terms:

- nationalism
- communism
- economy
- culture

- citizen
- government
- political
- society

Most native speakers of English would have difficulty explaining these terms clearly and concisely. Students struggling to learn English would be even more hard-pressed to define them well. History–social science instructors must develop a repertoire of vocabulary strategies that make conceptual vocabulary clear to both native speakers of English and English learners.

In history–social science textbooks, authors often explain a concept and then use substitutes or *referrers* to label them later in the text to avoid repetition. These grammatical devices are difficult for ELs for many reasons. Consider the following sentence:

> *Large portions of the population began moving from largely rural areas into industrial cities. This movement is known as* **urbanization.**

Some ELs may look for definitions to key vocabulary directly after the terms in boldface. In the example above, the definition came *before* the term. This may cause confusion for ELs who are used to seeing a definition after the term. In addition, *this movement* refers to the entire preceding sentence, which is also complex for nonnative speakers. An effective method to assist students in deciphering meaning embedded in history texts is to identify context clues that precede or follow key vocabulary. Several types of context clues help students learn vocabulary: appositions, contrast words or statements, illustrations and examples, and logical inferences. Terms such as "that is," "known as," "called," "which were," and "unlike" and punctuation marks (hyphens, parentheses, and commas) are consistently employed in history texts to present descriptions and explanations of key vocabulary and concepts.

Teachers should align history–social science instruction with the grade-level expectations in the four domains (reading, writing, speaking and listening, and language) described in the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy.

Before classroom instruction begins, teachers need to know what they want the students to learn, their students' level of English proficiency, and the language demands of the lesson's instructional materials. During classroom instruction, teachers need to be particularly sensitive to the English-language proficiency of their students to avoid overloading them with the amount of information or language requirements of a given lesson. Extending knowledge from other subject areas to history–social science is also important. For example, students should be able to use mathematics and an understanding of numbers to comprehend meaning in historical statistics, or be able to apply knowledge about biology and disease from their science classroom to understand the impact of historical plagues or environmental policies.

Pacing history–social science content and providing structured support for language learning are essential instructional strategies. Teachers must be systematic and consistent in introducing and teaching the main ideas and key concepts to support language and critical thinking. It is especially advantageous for teachers and students when teachers "chunk" instructional materials and activities in small blocks of time to allow teacher/student clarification and feedback between content (disseminated and taught) and activities (explained and completed). This strategy efficiently reduces teacher repetition of concepts and activity directions. Moreover, teaching in small blocks of time allows students to have manageable tasks and spreads out their cognitive load. In the same amount of instructional time, a teacher could teach the same amount of content.

Language/Process-Assisted Historical Thinking

One instructional approach to combining the teaching of language and history–social science content is through *language/process-assisted historical thinking,* whereby all students are provided with significant support to be successful in history–social science (Goldsmith and Tran 2012, 2013). *Language/process-assisted historical thinking* is an instructional process in which teachers provide students with guided practice in historical thinking and analysis skills, as well as language assistance. It is an integrated form of differentiation that incorporates learning of

content knowledge with English language development. What does not vary in history–social science classrooms is the purposeful teaching of the historical significance (or "big idea") of any lesson or unit. For example, in a lesson on American Indian resistance (HSS 5.3.4), teachers may disseminate the original texts (broken treaties, Indian letters, Indian tribal alliances, and so on) of these primary sources and/or selected excerpts.

Through *language/process-assisted historical thinking,* teachers support historical thinking when they explicitly provide guided practice in mastering the Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills. One instructional method is to lead a class exercise in deconstructing and recontextualizing reading passages (e.g., textbook, primary sources—newspapers, journals, travel logs, secondary sources) using graphic organizers to identify the grammatical structure of its sentences. Repeated practice in learning the relationship between sentence clauses through locating key concept vocabulary and abstract concepts of reading passages will develop students' critical reading and comprehension skills. Students are taught how to analyze the language patterns of historical texts to determine the actors, points of view, historical meaning, and significance.

After engaging with the reading, students would benefit from practice with historical interpretation, expressly making claims or answering the focus question of the lesson or unit by analyzing and evaluating the evidence collected from their reading. Teachers may monitor and assess students' progress in historical thinking and interpretation by providing written assignments and essays, oral discussions, quick writes, completed graphic organizers, or other course work and activities. Over time, students will have the ability to independently and confidently demonstrate any number of the Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills, including chronological sequencing and spatial context, cause and effect, examining evidence critically, acknowledging various points of view, and evaluating historical interpretation.

* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *

Sample Instruction

As a rule, each component of instruction in this fifth-grade history–social science classroom is differentiated, particularly because many of the students are ELs. While the teacher can often be found modeling the process and product of

lessons, students spend a significant amount of time collaborating with one another in their learning. In a unit on colonial Jamestown (HSS 5.4.2), the teacher prepares focus questions for historical inquiry and direction for students' standards-based reading: *Why did the English settle in Jamestown, and what happened as a result of the settlement?* The teacher also designs several graphic organizers to assist students in comprehending, compiling, and analyzing the text to answer the unit's overarching focus question.

First the teacher reviews the focus questions with the students to confirm understanding of the interpretive task at hand. In small discussion groups, students circle key words and phrases of the focus questions they consider important. Then the teacher examines and clarifies the student-selected key terms aloud: *settle, settlement, English, Jamestown, as a result, what,* and *why.* At this time the teacher also preteaches a key concept in the unit "Starvation Time." Building upon the students' prior knowledge, the teacher makes connections between the explorers (previous unit), skilled and unskilled labor (life experiences of students—nontransferable versus specialized skills such as plumbing, contractors, and the like), and ideas and values placed on land and wealth (previous unit and life experiences) in an open-ended question-and-answer discussion with the students. The teacher summarizes the discussion by reiterating the students' observations of how ill-equipped people on foreign territory might starve in extreme climate. Preteaching key concepts supports and promotes vocabulary acquisition, because students encounter new words and phrases in the proper context, and because the teacher had originally initiated the discussion by bridging their prior knowledge.

Secondly, the teacher employs a systematic functional grammar approach to reading the text with the class. This text comprehension strategy makes apparent the author's use of language in presenting information and interpretation (Schleppegrell, Greer, and Taylor 2008). The teacher assists the students in determining the historical events, figures, and meaning of this text through the repeated use of a graphic organizer the students are familiar with: "Breaking Down the Text."

An intensive study of the language features of history texts is a recurring instructional practice in this history–social science classroom. The teacher guides the class in deconstructing the reading passage and recontextualizing its meaning

for the inquiry-based instruction. After selected students read aloud each sentence, the teacher solicits responses for each of the graphic organizer's listed categories: connector/time marker, subject, action (verb), who's getting the action, and conclusion/question. The following paragraph allows the teacher to reinforce the preteaching discussion by having students consider the cause and effects of the "Starving Time," the historical event, in the context of the people and places of seventeenth-century colonial America.

The passage below is from the Library of Congress's "America's Story" Web site:

Half of the Jamestown settlers were artisans, craftsmen, soldiers, and laborers, including a tailor, a barber, and two surgeons among them. The other half were "gentlemen," men of wealth who did not have a profession, and who may have underestimated the rough work necessary to survive in the New World. After eight months, only 38 of the 120 pioneers were still alive . . . Jamestown, though it possessed a good harbor, was swampy, infested with mosquitoes, and lacked freshwater sources.

Below is a completed graphic organizer.

Breaking Down the Text

Passage Title: _____

Connector/ Time Marker	Subject	Action	Who's Getting/ Receiving the Action?	Conclusion/ Question
	Half of the Jamestown settlers	were	artisans, craftsmen, soldiers, and laborers, including a tailor, a barber, and two surgeons	This seems like a good group of people to have for a new colony.

	The other half	were	"gentlemen"	What were "gentlemen" supposed to bring/add to the colony? They seem sort of useless.
	men of wealth who	did not have	a profession	
and	who	may have underestimated	the rough work necessary to survive in the New World	
After eight months	only 38 of the 120 pioneers	were	still alive	That is a huge loss. Were they mostly older people and children?
[though it possessed a good harbor]	Jamestown,	was	swampy	Did people die from drinking bad water?
		infested with	mosquitoes	
and		lacked	freshwater sources	

An ongoing notetaking-and-research exercise takes place during instruction of the unit. During each class period, the teacher asks the students to make connections and distinguish between important and unimportant details for answering the focus questions: *Why did the English settle in Jamestown, and what happened as a result of the settlement?* In an activity called "Keep It or Junk It," students sort and shift through information collected from their homework reading or the previous day's lesson to contribute to a class-generated list of relevant notes. To review the previous lesson and to build upon their content knowledge, students ask one another in discussion groups, "What else do you need to know?" They do this to complete the unit's guiding question. Repeated oral discussions and higher-order thinking in discussion groups give the students more confidence about their skills practice with academic language. This activity also

alleviates the anxiety of producing a written product, because they are familiar and comfortable with the academic tasks of identifying relevant historical evidence and constructing a historical argument and interpretation.

Once the unit progresses to drafting a formal essay, the teacher directs the class in scaling down and categorizing the student-generated class notes to use as evidence for answering the unit's focus question. From a lengthy list of assorted facts and content and with the teacher's assistance, the class sifts through commonalities and relationships and establishes three main concerns of the settlers in Jamestown—food and starvation, poor location, and conflict with the American Indians. A condensed version of the final class notes might look like this:

Food/Starvation	Poor Choice to Settle	Conflict
■ John Smith, Jamestown leader, "If you don't work, you don't eat." ■ The Starving Time began during winter of 1609 and lasted until the spring of 1610. ■ Of the 100 settlers, half of them were gentlemen.	■ The water in the Chesapeake Bay was brackish. ■ Fresh water flowed from the James River. ■ The winters were very cold. ■ Not much vegetation grew during the winter months.	■ Over a 20-year period, both war and peace existed between the Powhatan and the English. ■ The Powhatan felt betrayed by the English when JS lied about how long the English planned to stay.

Finally, the formal writing assignment for this lesson requires students to write a five-paragraph essay. Each paragraph should include a claim and historical evidence to support the claim. The teacher works with the class to draft four of the five paragraphs together, including the introductory paragraph and thesis, two of the three paragraphs supporting the thesis statement, and the conclusion paragraph. The students analyze the content from their graphic organizers and select the relevant evidence to explain the English settlers' hardships in Jamestown. This exercise in critical thinking and problem solving is aligned with the Historical and Social Sciences Analysis Skills.

An example paragraph of the teacher-guided essay:

Graphic Organizer for an Essay

THESIS STATEMENT: The English came to Jamestown looking for gold and land but faced death and starvation as a result of choosing a poor spot to settle.

TOPIC SENTENCE OF PARAGRAPH 1: The English settled along the banks of Chesapeake Bay because the location offered protection from the Spanish and what they thought would have been a good source of water.

Must haves: Brackish, polluted water
Diseases like typhoid, diarrhea, dysentery

Evidence A: _____

Evidence B: _____

Evidence C: _____

* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *

Teachers working to provide *language/process-assisted historical thinking* can offer English-language assistance by modeling and guiding students through lesson activities and planning time for peer discussion, support, and learning, as demonstrated by the sample lesson. The students' ability to complete the assigned tasks independently or move from instruction that is scaffolded to less scaffolded should be a top priority. To support English language development in a history–social science classroom, teachers may try these additional instructional strategies:

- Present visual representations before the text,

- Produce verbal or printed sentence starters or sentence frames for students to complete,

- Model a final writing product,

- Teach content-specific vocabulary (concept maps),

- Hold class or small-group discussions, and/or

- Scaffold formal writing.

To attain English-language proficiency, students need opportunities, supported by appropriate instructional materials, to produce language they have acquired; to use language in academic interactions with peers and adults; and for their oral and written language to be monitored and corrected. Teachers must create an environment in which students feel comfortable in risking the use of new and unfamiliar language. Emphasis is placed on the students' producing language in a variety of contexts and the teachers' eliciting student participation and thought. Students should receive specific, constructive feedback from their teachers regarding the accuracy of their oral and written work. Teachers should analyze students' errors to determine development and progress in oral and written English and plan appropriate instruction to improve competence.

Figure 20.4 provides a tool for planning that teachers may find valuable.

FIGURE 20.4. Framing Questions for Lesson Planning

Framing Questions for All Students	Framing Questions for English Learners
■ What are the big ideas and culminating performance tasks of the larger unit of study, and how does this lesson build toward them? ■ What are the learning targets for this lesson, and what should students be able to do at the end of the lesson? ■ Which clusters of the CA History–Social Science Standards and the CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy does this lesson address? ■ What background knowledge, skills, and experiences do my students have that are related to this lesson? ■ How complex are the texts and tasks?	■ What are the English language proficiency levels of my students? ■ Which CA ELD Standards amplify the literacy and content standards at students' English language proficiency levels? ■ What language might be new for students and/or present challenges? ■ How will students interact in meaningful ways and learn about how English works in collaborative, interpretive, and/or productive modes?

Figure 20.4. *(continued)*

■ How will students make meaning, express themselves effectively, develop language, and learn content? ■ What types of scaffolding, accommodations, or modifications will individual students need for effectively engaging in the lesson tasks? ■ How will my students and I monitor learning during and after the lesson, and how will that inform instruction?	

Source: ELA/ELD Framework, p. 98.

Advanced Learners

Advanced learners are students who demonstrate or are capable of performing academically at a level significantly above the performance of their age group. They may include

■ students formally identified by a school district as gifted and talented

■ other students who have not been formally identified as gifted and talented but who demonstrate the capacity for advanced performance

In California, each school district sets its own criteria for identifying gifted and talented students.

The informal identification of students' learning needs (second bullet above) is important because some students, particularly California's culturally and linguistically diverse learners, may not exhibit the characteristics of advanced learning in culturally or linguistically congruent or familiar ways. For example, a kindergartener who enters U.S. schools as a newcomer to English and is fluently translating for others by the end of the year may not be formally identified as advanced but may, in fact, be best served by programs offered to gifted and talented students. Likewise, students with disabilities may not be identified by teachers as gifted and talented as readily as others, yet some students with

disabilities may also be considered gifted and talented. They are considered *twice exceptional,* and instruction needs to address both sets of needs (Nicpon et al. 2011). Teachers should be prepared through pre-service and in-service professional learning programs to recognize the *range of learners* who are gifted and talented. As noted previously, the populations discussed in this chapter are not mutually exclusive, and each is heterogeneous.

A synthesis of research (Rogers 2007) on the education of students identified as gifted and talented suggests that they should be provided with the following:

- Daily challenge in their specific areas of talent

- Regular opportunities to be unique and to work independently in their areas of passion and talent

- Various forms of subject-based and grade-based acceleration as their educational needs require

- Opportunities to socialize and learn with peers having similar abilities

- Instruction that is differentiated in pace, amount of review and practice, and organization of content presentation

Instruction for advanced learners should have greater depth and complexity. Opportunities to engage with appropriately challenging text and content, conduct research, use technology creatively, and write regularly on topics that interest them can be especially valuable for advanced learners; these experiences allow students to engage more deeply with content and may contribute to motivation. Instruction that focuses on depth and complexity ensures cohesion in learning rather than piecemeal "enrichment."

Teachers should provide assessments and tasks that vary in cognitive complexity or *depth of knowledge* (often referred to as DOK) called upon (Webb 2005). Depth of knowledge ranges from least to most complex and encompasses the following: recall and reproduction (Level 1), skills and concepts (Level 2), strategic thinking/reasoning (Level 3), and extended thinking (Level 4). The more complex tasks, those at DOK levels 3 and 4, generally require more time and involve the use of more resources. Advanced learners—***and all students***—should have ample opportunities to engage in a mixture of tasks with particular attention to those

most cognitively engaging and challenging—that is, tasks involving strategic thinking/reasoning and extended thinking.

Students Living in Poverty

More than one in five of California's children and adolescents live in poverty (Bohn and Danielson 2014). Some students living in poverty are from families in which parents work at one or more jobs yet have difficulty surviving economically. Some students living in poverty have moved often with their families, changing schools every year or multiple times each year, because of economic circumstances, including job loss. Some are unaccompanied minors, some are living on the street or in shelters with their families, and some have stable housing but often go hungry. They are a heterogeneous group made up of all ethnicities, but students of color are overrepresented in the population of students in kindergarten through grade twelve living below the poverty line (Aud, Fox, and KewalRamani 2010).

The challenges that individuals living in poverty face are complex. The resources of many agencies working in collaboration are required to mitigate the negative effects of poverty. A broad interpretation of shared responsibility (that is, one that includes agencies beyond the public education system) is crucial in order to serve those students.

Poverty is a risk factor for poor academic outcomes. In other words, children and youths living in poverty are more likely than their peers to experience academic difficulty. However, the effects of poverty on individuals vary based on "the individual's characteristics (such as personality traits), specific life experience (such as loss of housing), and contextual factors (such as neighborhood crime), as well as the stressor's timing . . ." and the presence of protective factors, which includes affirming, positive, and supportive relationships with teachers and schools (Moore 2013, 4). Thus, the respectful, positive, and supportive schools called for throughout the entire framework are especially crucial for students living in the psychologically and physically stressful circumstances that come with poverty.

Children and youths living in poverty often miss many days of school; some stop attending altogether. Many transfer from one school to another as their living circumstances dictate. As a result, there are often gaps in their education. Research indicates that high residential mobility during the early years is related to poor

initial reading achievement and subsequent trajectories (Voight, Shinn, and Nation 2012). It is essential that teachers and districts identify student instructional needs early and work to determine how such needs may be addressed. Notably, children living in poverty who do experience academic success in the early years of school are more likely to succeed in subsequent years; early success in reading has been demonstrated to have particular significance for this population of students (Herbers et al. 2012).

Students living in poverty are more likely to struggle with engagement in school. Jensen (2008) discussed seven areas of concern for low-income students and recommended actions that teachers can take to mitigate the effects. The issues cannot be addressed solely in the classroom. Other resources must be harnessed to more fully address the needs of these students. (See also Kaiser, Roberts, and McLeod 2011 for a discussion of poverty and language delays.)

Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender Students

All of California's children and adolescents have the fundamental right to be respected and to feel safe in their school environment, yet many do not because of their sexual orientation or gender expression. Research indicates that students in kindergarten through grade six who are gender-nonconforming are less likely than other students to feel safe at school and more likely to indicate that they sometimes do not want to go to school because they feel unsafe or afraid. Furthermore, they are more likely to be mocked, called names, or bullied (GLSEN and Harris Interactive 2012). Lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) students between the ages of thirteen and eighteen also report feeling unsafe and experiencing harassment or assault at school. Like their younger counterparts, they miss days of school to avoid a hostile climate. Notably, students in middle school report higher frequencies of victimization than do students in high school (GLSEN 2012).

All California educators have a duty to protect students' right to physical and psychological safety and ensure that each student has the opportunity to thrive. *Education Code* Section 200 et seq. prohibits discrimination on the basis of various protected groups, including sexual orientation, gender identity, and gender expression. California recognizes that discrimination and harassment in schools "can have a profound and prolonged adverse effect on students' ability to benefit from public education and maximize their potential" (CDE 2012a).

Furthermore, research suggests that victimization based on sexual orientation or gender expression is related to lower academic achievement and educational aspirations as well as poorer psychological well-being (GSLEN 2012). Both teachers and students should understand the terminology used to refer to individuals who are LGBT, and be able to understand the negative effects of slang terms or discriminatory language.

The Gay, Lesbian, and Straight Education Network (GLSEN 2012) has the following recommendations for schools regarding students in this heterogeneous population:

- Adopt and implement clear policies and procedures that address bullying, cyberbullying, and harassment for any reason, thus promoting respectful and safe environments for all students.

- Provide professional learning to educators and ensure that all students have access to a welcoming environment and supportive, respectful teachers, and school staff who will intervene on their behalf.

- Increase students' access to an inclusive curriculum (California Senate Bill 48 added language to *Education Code* Section 51204.5 prescribing the inclusion of the contributions of LGBT Americans to the economic, political, and social development of California and the United States of America, with particular emphasis on portraying the role of these groups in contemporary society).

Additional recommendations include the following:

- Make available and share age-appropriate literature that reflects the diversity of humankind and thoughtfully deals with the complexities and dynamics of intolerance and discrimination.

- Teach students, by example and through discussion, how to treat diverse others.

California students who are not themselves in this population may have parents or guardians who are LGBT. All students and their families need to feel safe, respected, and welcomed in school.

Students with Disabilities

In accordance with the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEA), reauthorized in 2004, California local educational agencies provide special education and other related services as a part of a guaranteed free appropriate public education to students who meet the criteria under one of the following categories: autism, deafness, deaf–blindness, emotional disturbance, hearing impairment, intellectual disability, multiple disabilities, orthopedic impairment, other health impairment, specific learning disability, speech or language impairment, traumatic brain injury, visual impairment, including blindness. See the National Dissemination Center for Children with Disabilities [http://nichcy.org/disability/categories] for descriptions.)

Students with specific learning disabilities and speech and language impairment make up approximately two-thirds of students receiving special education services (CDE Data Quest 2011). Although specific learning disabilities vary widely, difficulty with reading is the most common type of specific learning disability. (However, it is important to note that students experiencing difficulty with reading do not necessarily have a learning disability. There are many causes for low achievement in reading, including inadequate instruction. Under the IDEA, a student who is performing below grade level may not be determined to have a specific learning disability if the student's performance is primarily a result of limited English proficiency or if it is due to a lack of appropriate instruction.)

A student's membership in a particular disability category represents only a label for a qualifying condition. The severity of a disability and the educational needs in each disability category vary widely. Thus, each individualized education program (IEP) should be based on individual need and not the disability. All students with disabilities require knowledgeable teachers who work closely with education specialists and families to determine how best to provide equitable access to the curriculum.

Students who receive special education and related services in the public school system must have an IEP (https://www.understood.org/en/school-learning/special-services/ieps/video-what-is-an-iep). The IEP is a federally mandated document specifically designed to address an individual's unique educational needs. It includes information about the student's present levels of performance (including

strengths), annual goals, accommodations and modifications, and the services and supports that are to be provided in order to meet the goals. The members of the IEP team—students, teachers, parents, school administrators, and related services personnel—work collaboratively to improve educational results for students with disabilities. IEPs for ELs with disabilities should include linguistically appropriate goals and objectives in addition to all the supports and services the student may require due to the disability. The IEP serves as the foundation for ensuring a quality education for each student with a disability.

Depending on the individualized needs, some students with disabilities may receive supports and/or services with a 504 Plan (http://specialchildren.about.com/od/504s/qt/sample504.htm) rather than an IEP. A 504 Plan refers to Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act and the Americans with Disabilities Act (http://specialchildren.about.com/od/disabilityrights/qt/ada.htm), which specifies that no one with a disability may be excluded from participating in federally funded programs or activities, including elementary, secondary, or postsecondary schooling. Disability, in this context, refers to a "physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one or more major life activities." This may include physical impairments; illnesses or injuries; communicable diseases; chronic conditions like asthma, allergies, and diabetes; and learning problems. A 504 Plan spells out the modifications and accommodations that will be needed for those students to have opportunities to perform at the same level as their nondisabled peers, and may include such supports as an extra set of textbooks, audio textbooks, a peanut-free lunch environment, or a tape recorder or mobile device for taking notes.

Classroom Example: Differentiated Instruction in a Grade Eight Co-Taught History–Social Science Class

Ms. Nash, a general education history–social science teacher, and Ms. Valdez, a special education teacher, co-teach a grade eight history–social science class of 36 students, nine of whom are students receiving specially designed instruction to support IEP goals for reading comprehension and written expression. The class is studying the Civil War period or, more specifically, the perspectives of a variety of historical figures during the Civil War.

Example (*continued*)

Ms. Nash and Ms. Valdez begin the lesson by reminding students of the question for discussion: "Was the Civil War a war for freedom?" They explain to students that this question will now be considered from the point of view of individuals from the North and the South who actually lived during the conflict. After a brief presentation on what *perspective* means and how it is influenced, students are placed strategically into one of six groups that are each assigned to a pair of historical actors and related secondary and primary sources. These documents will be used for part of their summative assessment at the conclusion of the unit: an argumentative essay.

As routinely practiced, the co-teachers carefully plan the groupings to ensure that membership is not static but changes frequently to ensure that all students have the opportunity to move across learning groups that best correspond to the instructional purpose and students' instructional skills, interests, and needs. In addition, Ms. Nash and Ms. Valdez switch their instructional roles to ensure shared responsibility for teaching all students. They also make sure that accommodations and modifications are provided as identified in the students' IEPs. In their classroom, two students are provided with digitized text and specialized software to access the text with auditory supports and visual enhancements and another student has access to a portable word processor with grammar/spell-check software to take notes and complete written assignments.

For today's lesson, the students are grouped according to the level of scaffolding and differentiated instruction needed to comprehend the text. The final objective for all students is to understand the concept of perspective and how someone's point of view will likely impact the answer to the question of whether the Civil War was a war for freedom. They will work collaboratively, in small groups of three to four, to identify and annotate claims and supporting textual evidence, as well as to explain how the evidence supports the author's claim. The students are provided with elaboration stems, as well as sentence starters, to help support their meaningful engagement in listening and speaking. Ms. Nash and Ms. Valdez take turns monitoring the small groups periodically throughout the instructional period.

Example *(continued)*

Two of the groups are composed of students who need direct teacher support to navigate, comprehend, and respond to the text. The students work together with direct support from either Ms. Nash or Ms. Valdez to complete the same assignment as the other groups, focusing specifically on claims and supporting evidence. They are also provided with elaboration stems and sentence starters to help support their meaningful engagement in listening and speaking. The teachers differentiate instruction with read-alouds and think-alouds while providing visual supports: displaying, highlighting, and chunking the text by using document cameras. All six groups are held to the same rigorous expectations and standards.

After the six groups are finished, each group of students presents its claims and evidence. As each group presents, the students add necessary facts and details as information is being shared, read, or discussed into an advanced organizer prepared by the teachers to support and interpret the incoming information. The students will continue to complete their organizers after they receive the other two texts to annotate.

At the end of class, students are given an Exit Slip with a prompt as a way for Ms. Nash and Ms. Valdez to assess how accurately students can independently express the authors' claims and the ways they support those claims. The Exit Slip provides an informal measure of the students' understanding, allowing the teachers to adapt and differentiate their planning and instruction for the following lesson.

At the end of the unit, students will write an argumentative essay and participate in a mock talk show activity using their completed advanced organizer as well as copies of all of the texts.

Source: The History Blueprint: The Civil War, © 2011, The California History-Social Science Project, Regents of the University of California, Davis.

CA CCSS for ELA/Literacy: RL.8.10; RI.8.1–3, 5, 10; W.8.1, 4, 9b; SL.8.1, 4
CA HSS Content Standard: 8.9.1
CA HSS Analysis Skills: Research, Evidence, and Point of View 1–5

Specially designed instruction is provided to students with disabilities, depending on the learners and their identified needs. **The education specialist and**

general education teacher share responsibility for developing and implementing IEPs. Together, they ensure students with disabilities are provided with the supports needed to achieve their highest potential, and they communicate and collaborate with families in culturally and linguistically appropriate ways.

Most students with disabilities are served exclusively in the general education classroom where they receive instruction primarily from the general education teacher. Typically, the education specialist consults with the general education teacher to provide resources, professional learning, and other necessary supports. Both the education specialist and the general education teacher monitor the student's progress in meeting curricular expectations of the classroom as well as the goals of the IEP.

Some students with disabilities receive core instruction in the general education class as well as instruction from the specialist (when needed), either in the general education setting or in a special education setting. The general educator receives guidance from the specialist, and the two (or more) collaborate to provide the student with optimal instruction. At times, general educators and education specialists engage in co-teaching: the general educator and the education specialist deliver instruction in the same general classroom setting to a blended group of students (that is, those with and without identified disabilities). There are several models of co-teaching (Bacharach, Heck, and Dahlberg 2010; Friend and Bursuck 2009).

Some students with disabilities require highly specialized or intensive intervention instruction from the educational specialist in an alternative setting outside the general education classroom. Those students participate in general education classes and interact with students without disabilities to the maximum extent appropriate, depending on the nature of their disabilities.

Accommodations and Modifications for Students with Disabilities

Most students who are eligible for special education services are able to achieve the standards when the following three conditions are met:

1. Standards are implemented according to the foundational principles of Universal Design for Learning. (See subsequent section in this chapter.)

2. Evidence-based instructional strategies are implemented, and instructional materials and curriculum reflect the interests, preferences, and readiness of each student to maximize learning potential.

3. Appropriate accommodations are provided to help students gain access to grade-level content.

Accommodations are changes to a curriculum's materials that help a student with uncommon learning styles. Accommodations do not reduce the learning or performance expectations but allow the student to complete an assignment of assessment with changes in presentation, response, setting, timing, or scheduling so that learners are provided with equitable access to the curriculum during instruction and assessment. They also include learner-appropriate behavior management techniques. See figure 20.5 below.

More guidance is available in the Council of Chief State School Officers' *Accommodations Manual: How to Select, Administer, and Evaluate Use of Accommodations for Instruction and Assessment of Students with Disabilities* (Thompson et al. 2005).

FIGURE 20.5. Types of Accommodations for Students with Disabilities

Type of Accommodation	Examples of Classroom Implementation
Changes in timing or scheduling	■ Extended time (e.g., to allow for limited dexterity) ■ Frequent breaks (e.g., to avoid physical discomfort) ■ Dividing assignment over several sessions (e.g., to avoid eyestrain or frustration)
Changes in setting/ environment	■ Specialized furniture (e.g., adjustable height desk to allow for wheelchair) ■ Preferential seating (e.g., close to whiteboard to support low vision or to be away from distractions) ■ Stabilization of instructional materials (e.g., book-holder to support weak fine motor skills)

Figure 20.6. *(continued)*

Changes in how the curriculum is presented	■ Varied lesson presentation using multisensory techniques ■ Use of American Sign Language ■ Provision of audio and digital versions of texts ■ Provision of tactile resources, such as physical models and raised maps
Changes in how the student responds	■ Provision of wide-ruled paper or a computer for written work ■ Responds in braille ■ Use of a recording device to record/play back questions, passages, and responses
Behavioral strategies	■ Use of behavioral management techniques appropriate for the learner ■ Reinforce self-monitoring and self-recording of behaviors

Unlike accommodations, **modifications** are adjustments to an assignment or assessment that changes what is expected or measured. Modifications should be used with caution as they alter, change, lower, or reduce learning expectations and may increase the achievement gap between students with disabilities and peers who have no disabilities. Examples of modifications include the following:

■ Reducing the expectations of an assignment or assessment (e.g., students complete fewer problems, receive fewer materials, or have less difficult problems to complete)

■ Making assignments or assessment items easier

■ Providing clues to correct responses

Accommodations and modifications play important roles in helping students with disabilities to gain access to the core curriculum and demonstrate what they know and can do. The student's IEP or 504 Plan team determines the appropriate accommodations and modifications for both instruction and state and district assessments. Decisions about accommodations and modifications are made on an individual student basis, not on the basis of category of disability. For example,

rather than select accommodations and modifications from a generic checklist, the IEP and 504 Plan team members (including families and the student) need to carefully consider and evaluate the effectiveness of accommodations for each student.

Accommodations and modifications support equitable instruction and assessment for students with disabilities. Accommodations and modifications should be the same across classroom instruction, classroom tests, and state/district assessments. However, some accommodations and modifications may be appropriate only for instructional use and may not be appropriate for use on a standardized assessment. It is crucial that educators are familiar with state policies regarding accommodations used during standardized assessment.

Universal Design for Learning and Multi-Tiered System of Supports

This section focuses on classroom- and school- or district-level processes and structures for planning for and supporting all of California's learners in transitional kindergarten through grade twelve. It begins with a discussion of Universal Design for Learning (UDL) and then presents information about Multi-Tiered System of Supports (MTSS) and the implementation of culturally and linguistically responsive pedagogy.

Universal Design for Learning

UDL is a research-based framework for guiding educational practice (see www.udlcenter.org). Based on the premise that one-size-fits-all curricula create unintentional barriers to learning for many students, including the mythical average student, UDL focuses on planning instruction in such a way so as to meet the varied needs of students. Not a special education initiative, UDL acknowledges the needs of all learners at the first point of teaching, thereby reducing the amount of follow-up and alternative instruction necessary.

UDL involves the use of effective teaching practices and the intentional differentiation of instruction from the outset to meet the needs of the full continuum of learners. Teachers who employ UDL attend to how information is shared along with choices of action, expression, and engagement. In other words,

general education teachers consider, as they plan, different ways to present information and content, different ways in which the students can express what they know, and different ways of stimulating students' interest and motivation for learning—all based on students' needs (CAST 2011).

The UDL guidelines are organized by three primary principles. Figure 20.6 displays the three principles, the UDL guidelines, as well as practical suggestions for classroom implementation. For additional information on the guidelines, please visit the National Center for UDL: http://www.udlcenter.org/aboutudl.

FIGURE 20.6. UDL Principles, Guidelines, and Suggestions for Implementation

Principle I: Provide multiple means of representation to give students various ways of acquiring, processing, and integrating information and knowledge	
GUIDELINE 1 Provide options for perception	■ Customize the display of information (e.g., change the size of text or images or change the volume of speech) ■ Provide alternatives for auditory information (e.g., provide written transcripts or use American Sign Language)
GUIDELINE 2 Provide options for language, mathematical expressions, and symbols	■ Clarify vocabulary and symbols (e.g., provide a glossary or graphic equivalents or teach word components) ■ Illustrate key concepts through multiple media (e.g., provide illustrations, simulations, or interactive graphics or make explicit the connections between text and illustrations, diagrams, or other representations of information)
GUIDELINE 3 Provide options for comprehension	■ Activate or supply background knowledge (e.g., use advanced organizers and make explicit cross-curricular connections) ■ Highlight patterns, critical features, big ideas, and relationships (e.g., use outlines to emphasize important ideas or draw students' attention to critical features)

Figure 20.6. *(continued)*

Principle II: Provide multiple means of action and expression to provide students with options for navigating and demonstrating learning	
GUIDELINE 4 Provide options for physical action	■ Vary the methods for response and navigation (e.g., provide learners with alternatives to written responses) ■ Integrate assistive technologies (e.g., make touch screens and alternative keyboards accessible)
GUIDELINE 5 Provide multiple tools for construction and composition	■ Use multiple media for communication (e.g., provide options for composing, such as in text and film) ■ Build fluencies with graduated levels of support for practice and performance (e.g., provide more or less scaffolding depending upon the learner)
GUIDELINE 6 Provide options for executive functions	■ Guide appropriate goal setting (e.g., support learners in estimating the difficulty of a goal) ■ Support planning and strategy development (e.g., support learners in identifying priorities and a sequence of steps)
Principle III: Provide multiple means of engagement to tap individual learners' interests, challenge them appropriately, and motivate them to learn.	
GUIDELINE 7 Provide options for recruiting interest	■ Optimize individual choice and autonomy (e.g., provide learners choice in the order they accomplish tasks) ■ Optimize relevance, value, and authenticity (e.g., provide home and community audiences for students' work)
GUIDELINE 8 Provide options for sustaining effort and persistence	■ Vary demands and resources to optimize challenge (e.g., provide a range of resources appropriate for the learner) ■ Foster collaboration and communication (e.g., offer structures for group work and discuss expectations)

Figure 20.6. *(continued)*

| GUIDELINE 9 Provide options for self-regulation | ■ Promote expectations and beliefs that optimize motivation (e.g., help students set personal goals) |
| | ■ Develop self-assessment and reflection (e.g., support students in identifying progress toward goals) |

When initial instruction is planned in such a way that it flexibly adjusts to learner variability, more students are likely to succeed. Fewer students will find the initial instruction inaccessible, and therefore less "catch up" instruction will be needed.

Multi-Tiered System of Supports

A coordinated system of supports and services is crucial for ensuring appropriate and timely attention to students' needs. The MTSS model expands California's Response to Intervention and Instruction (RtI²) process by aligning all systems of high-quality first instruction, support, and intervention with structures for building, changing, and sustaining systems. The foundational structures of the MTSS include high-quality core instruction utilizing UDL principles and appropriate supports, strategies, and accommodations. In addition, assessments and progress monitoring are employed to allow for a data-based, problem-solving approach to instructional decision making.

Like RtI², the MTSS incorporates the three tiered structure of increasing levels of supports and begins with the establishment of strong core instruction in Tier 1. These tiers reflect the intensity of instruction and does not specify programs, students, or staff (i.e., Title 1 or special education). Students receiving either Tier 2 or Tier 3 support should not be deprived of engaging history–social science course work. Full participation in this course work is critical for ongoing content knowledge, language, and literacy development.

Some high schools include interventions in a content area such as social studies. In this example, 25 minutes might be dedicated to content area instruction and 25 minutes to comprehension or decoding strategies applied to the content area book. A block schedule of 90 minutes might incorporate 30 minutes of "reading enrichment" in which students with strong or average reading skills would read

independently and the teacher could run a small flexibly grouped remedial intervention in the same room. Alternatively, a reading specialist might co-teach a course and provide remediation or run a small group in a different setting. The latter would allow the reading specialist to conduct three groups, for 30 minutes with each, within the same 90-minute block.

Because these are small groups, there has to be an opportunity to create a teacher/tutor-to-student ratio of approximately 1 to 10. Thus, one classroom teacher and one paraprofessional (or two teachers) could teach a class of 20–24 students, or one reading specialist could pull out up to 10 students at any one time from one course.

Tier 1

Students in Tier 1 are generally making good progress toward the standards but may be experiencing temporary or minor difficulties. Although the needs of these students may not seem critical, they must be addressed quickly to prevent the students from falling behind. An effective instructional strategy is to reteach a concept in a different way to an individual or a group of students or schedule a study group to provide additional learning time. Occasionally, adults can be enlisted to reinforce learning at home, using instructional resources organized in ways that make it easy for them to do so. Some students may need periodic individual assistance or other types of support to ensure that they succeed in the regular classroom. Once the student has grasped the concept or procedure correctly, additional practice is usually helpful.

Tier 2

Students in Tier 2 may be working one to two grade levels below their peers. The regular classroom teacher can often address their learning difficulties, with minimal assistance, in the classroom environment. However, the students' learning difficulties should be examined systematically and with care. A student success team might be called on to discuss appropriate support for the student. In addition to reteaching a concept, the teacher may wish to provide specific assignments over a period of time for students to complete with a peer or tutor or by themselves at home. Regular study groups working before or after school, in the evenings, or on

weekends may provide an effective extension of the learning time. Some students may need extended blocks of time for the study of history–social science to master particularly complex content. Others may require specific accommodations and modifications to the classroom environment, curriculum, or instruction as identified in the students' 504 Plan. Students with disabilities may need special accommodations and/or modifications of curriculum or instruction, as specified in their IEP, to enable them to participate successfully in a mainstream classroom.

For instance, to mitigate the impact of below-level reading skills, information about historical topics covered in class could be provided via online tutorial or virtual demonstration, a video, leveled-texts, digital text with translation (e.g., for ELs), or digital text with on-demand supports such as embedded dictionary and text-to-speech options. Providing options for students that minimize or remove the impact of barriers to their academic engagement will increase engagement rates and learning outcomes.

The integration of core instructional materials into tiered intervention utilizing a preview–preteach model of intervention will maximize the effectiveness of intervention and increase student benefit from core instruction. For instance, instead of facilitating word study or practicing vocabulary acquisition strategies with a random set of words, teachers utilize important content-specific vocabulary that students will need to know to master their current history–social science content. Interventions that tie very closely to core content instruction will be more effective than interventions that operate independently of core instruction. Furthermore, Tier 2 interventions should address both student academic and engagement needs through strategies such as goal setting, increased high-quality feedback, and students' monitoring of their own progress. Also, a wise strategy is to select the most highly effective teachers who have the skills to quickly form positive and motivating relationships with students.

Tier 3

Students in Tier 3 are identified by their extremely and chronically low performance on one or more measures. These students perform well below their peers and should be referred to a student success team for a thorough discussion of options. A referral for special education evaluation may be advisable. If eligible for special education services, those students will be given an IEP that will describe

the most appropriate services. Specialized assistance will often be available through the special education referral, perhaps including intensive intervention by a qualified specialist, tutoring, services of a classroom assistant, specialized materials or equipment, changes in assessment procedures, or modification of the curriculum or instruction. In general education classrooms, teachers can place students in small groups by similar ability levels in order to provide them with more targeted attention, in addition to scaffolded instruction, and feedback. Students who are considered members of Tier 3, as well as the aforementioned groups, may greatly benefit from RtI² strategies.

Conclusion

California is committed to equity and access for all learners. Ensuring that all learners achieve their highest potential is a challenging and multifaceted endeavor, but it is one that can be accomplished by knowledgeable, skillful, and dedicated teams of educators who work closely with families and equally dedicated communities. The children and youths of this state deserve no less, and the nation will be stronger as a result.